

PR

The
Quarterly
Review
of Public
Relations

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What is the Best Preparation For Public Relations?

EDUCATION *in* *Public Relations*

By MELVIN BRODSHAUG*

IF YOU WERE ILL, you would not employ a doctor who confided that his formal training had been in zoology, not in medicine. Nor would you ask a man trained in dentistry to draw up plans for your new house simply because he assured you that he now regards himself as an architect.

We expect a man to train in the particular profession he practices. And we expect a profession to prescribe the training a recognized practitioner ought to have.

So far, public relations has fulfilled neither requirement satisfactorily. Until it does, I believe that the road to professionalism for public relations will prove to be a treadmill. And I believe that the time to halt the treadmill and to take positive steps forward has now arrived.

Further progress will come when public relations practitioners a) make formal training in public relations an important requisite for admission into the field; and b) assist educators by outlining the activities that public relations practitioners are called on to perform.

The situation we face today has evolved in an understandable manner. It was not until World War I that public relations became established generally as a function of government and of business. Outside of a few institutions of higher learning, there has been no adequate program for the training of public relations people.

Most of the present leaders in public relations were trained in other professions: journalism, law, business, and engineering, or in one of the academic areas such as political science, social psychology, and English. Of these, journalism and law are the predominant source.

I do not disparage the value of the training received by lawyers and journalists. Public relations has much to learn from both. Law is highly

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selective, its training is rigorous, and it holds a respected position in the minds of most people. It develops a logical mind. The lawyer must be able and willing to dig for his material. He must learn to analyze his materials and to organize them systematically. Most important, he must present his information effectively. Therefore, he is a valuable man at the management conference table.

Journalism is widely acclaimed as good training for public relations. Of this, there can be no doubt. Journalism teaches a man to be a systematic writer. He acquires a highly developed news sense, which makes him valuable in those phases of public relations that have to do with publicity. He usually has an acquaintanceship with a wide range of subjects: literature, history, government, and economics. To be successful, he must be resourceful, and he must come through on time. The attributes of a good journalist find a ready market in the public relations field.

Still, the fact remains that neither law nor journalism provides specific training in public relations. Neither develops precisely that happy combination of philosophy, attitudes, skills, and knowledge with which fully qualified public relations practitioners are necessarily equipped.

Training Through Formal Study

Can any course of formal study adequately train people for public relations? At the Boston University School of Public Relations and Communications we answer that question in the affirmative. We are pioneering, true, but we feel extremely confident about the future of education in this field.

We do not hold that the courses we are presently offering are the final answer. We expect improvement. But we have learned to cope with many of the problems we encounter. We are taking unskilled young people and, as our records show, turning out trained aspirants in public relations who are capable of making their mark.

The first problem we encounter frequently with new students is posed by those who tell us, "I want to study public relations because I like to work with people." It becomes a very delicate guidance matter to change that attitude, but, in the course of an interview, we make clear that most general and specific activities in public relations do not involve working with people, certainly not any more so than many of the other white collar professions. Eventually we come to the point of explaining that public relations is more a matter of working with ideas than with people.

Another misconception we encounter is the false notion that general intelligence is not half as important as what is popularly known as "personality." Our reply is that the man who aspires to even a junior position in public relations must be endowed with more than average intelligence. Also, he must possess a high degree of resourcefulness and some measure of aggressiveness. He must be trained to be reflective; the public relations man who is compulsive by nature will probably not be successful.

A New Kind Of Executive

In essence, what we are trying to do is to train a new kind of executive—an executive who, we hope, will one day assume a top position in the management of corporations. The public relations executive, as have lawyers and accountants before him, may qualify for top positions by virtue of his grasp of the total organization and operation of his company. But his particular forte is the training he has had in communication.

Communication, a major factor in public relations, is important in all human relations and social situations, as well as in commercial fields, such as advertising. However, the public relations approach to communication problems has certain advantages not shared by other fields.

In communications the first step, after the objectives of an institution have been established, is to determine the background and the real aspirations of the audience that is to be reached or served. The stimulus-response kind of psychology on which advertising cut its teeth is of very little help. When advertising men express concern about their professional status, they probably sense an impasse between themselves and their audience. Modern social scientists who study human motivation are assisting in the development of theories and principles of communications which may prove more fruitful than the psychology that advertising has leaned upon so heavily.

When public relations made the transition from press agency to emphasis on public opinion, it did what some other professions have done. In essence, it reached out and established its roots in modern science, somewhat as medicine did decades ago. I certainly do not mean to imply that public relations *in toto* has developed a body of knowledge or a system of analysis. The important fact is that the leading public relations men have. Their advances will penetrate the entire profession, as well as related professions.

I am not saying that we should train mere theorists. The only sound

starting point for an educational program in public relations is for practitioners to describe the kinds of persons that are needed. They should analyze and list the activities that the public relations persons will have to perform. The academic people in our colleges and universities should then develop the educational program that will equip students to fit the practical requirements of the field.

Fundamentally, a public relations man needs philosophy to give him the knowledge and the skills necessary to arrive at wise decisions. He needs logic to help him organize his thoughts and ideas. And he needs an understanding of persuasion to help him convince his associates and to influence public opinion. These are the ends to which his course of study should lead him. To achieve these ends, a student must pursue a wide range of subjects.

Public relations is definitely an interdisciplinary profession, and the course of study we prescribe at Boston University reflects that fact. The student acquires first a general understanding in all the areas of human knowledge; namely, the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences. Students coming to us as freshmen take such a program in the first two years.

In the humanities, a student should possess the basic language skills, especially writing, reading, speaking, and listening. He should have some familiarity with American history, world history, and backgrounds of Western culture. He should have some understanding and appreciation of the fine arts, including graphic and plastic arts, the dance, music, the theater, and literature.

In the natural sciences there are certain major ideas and concepts that are of vital importance in communication and in the understanding of human behavior, and, therefore, of public relations. Such subjects include light and vision, sound and hearing, electronics, the nervous system, and the endocrine system. Mathematics and statistics are essential in many kinds of communications and are basic in all social research such as polling, and public opinion and attitude changes.

The Social Sciences

In the social sciences the background training should embrace the pertinent principles of anthropology, political science, sociology, economics, and social psychology. Education in the social sciences should be just deep enough to give the public relations man the basic principles underlying each of these disciplines.

At Boston University we offer the professional part of the public relations training in the junior and senior years. Students transfer into the program at the end of the sophomore year. An advanced program is offered at the graduate level to students who have their bachelor's degrees.

The Division of Public Relations has a full-time staff of six professors and instructors who are specialists in business writing, publicity, media, community relations, personnel relations, business management, economics, social psychology, and political science. There are eight part-time instructors drawn from other schools in the university and from business. Also available in the School are the resources of the Division of Journalism, the Division of Communication Arts, and the Division of Research.

The Division of Research is headed by a chairman and a staff of three social psychologists. This Division carries on research in public opinion and attitude change and gives instruction in these areas. For example, the staff has tested the copy of informational bulletins and reports, using experimental procedures with control groups. In one study the research revealed that, even though the audience did not remember isolated information, its members did carry away a definite change in attitude. Experimental studies of this kind are important in their own right, as well as in the training they offer to students.

Other Skills

The School strives to develop public relations people who are skilled in persuasive speech and in persuasive writing. Intensive courses in publicity and public relations techniques are required of all students. Instruction in the traditions and ethics of the public relations profession is offered to give students a sense of belonging and a sense of direction and confidence.

The public relations student receives an understanding of the role and potentialities of all the mass media, such as books, especially paper-bound books. The other media also receive careful attention: the news magazines, including the picture magazines, the daily newspapers, the motion pictures, the radio, the television and, let us not forget, word-of-mouth. The latter is still the most persuasive and universal of all the media. Word-of-mouth relates closely to gossip and rumor, which are spurious but important public opinion instruments.

The public relations man needs to have a thorough grounding in human nature and human behavior, with special attention to the predispositions of people and their aspirations. This is fundamental to all human

relations and communications. Graduate students have a course in public opinion and propaganda.

The public relations man needs a working understanding of our political and economic institutions. For example, he must appreciate always that institutions are only means to ends, and are never the ends. He needs to understand how the power institutions are stratified, going from the local, municipal, county, state, up to the national level. He should understand the distinction between legislative, executive, and judicial functions. The public relations man needs to understand the power processes in government. In business, too, similar power processes operate in such areas as management, administration, decision-making, executive action, industrial relations, and human relations.

Practical Grounding

The public relations student receives practical grounding in interaction of the divisions of a modern corporation: management, stockholders, board of directors, finance, production, distribution, procurement, personnel relations, industrial relations, advertising, and market research. All of these are intimately related to the functions of public relations in business.

In addition, the public relations student takes certain other fact courses, such as the law of communication. Nearly every student elects a course in community relations. He needs to study and become acquainted with a variety of public relations problems. He is exposed to public relations cases and case studies. Certain selected graduate students receive an intensive internship for a semester before they complete their work.

All of this adds up to the best educational program we can conceive of at present for the training of men and women who aspire to careers in public relations. Other universities may have programs equally as good or even better than ours. As the field of public relations becomes more clearly defined, all educational institutions offering this discipline will find it possible to sharpen their training programs. None of us can go far on our own in advance of the profession, but we can help the profession to advance.

I believe it is safe to say that as of right now, our School and other universities with programs similar to ours, offer the best training a newcomer to public relations can acquire. Acceptance of that idea by established public relations men and women will not only be a boon to the educational institutions concerned, but will help the field of public relations advance toward professionalism.

PUBLIC RELATIONS COURSES IN SCHOOLS AND DEPARTMENTS OF JOURNALISM

Programs of study in public relations in schools and departments of journalism have increased 133 percent in four years, according to a recent survey by Stewart Harral, director of public relations studies, University of Oklahoma, and his assistant, Clyde Davis.

Major programs in public relations have jumped from 12 in 1951 to 28 in 1955. The trend will continue, Harral believes, because a number of the journalism school officials who participated in the survey indicated plans for expansion of public relations offerings.

Sixty-six schools of journalism now offer a total of 106 undergraduate courses with public relations in the title:

- 1 school (Boston) has 8 PR courses
- 1 school (Maryland) has 4 PR courses
- 18 schools have 3 PR courses
- 40 schools have 2 PR courses

Twenty-eight schools of journalism offer undergraduate sequences in public relations. The most common course requirements, with number in parenthesis indicating the schools requiring the courses, are these:

<i>Reporting and Writing</i>	(28)
<i>Public Relations</i>	(27)
<i>Editing</i>	(18)
<i>House Organs</i>	(17)
<i>Advertising</i>	(17)
<i>Journalism Law</i>	(15)
<i>Typography</i>	(14)
<i>Feature Writing</i>	(13)
<i>History of Journalism</i>	(12)
<i>Public Opinion</i>	(12)
<i>Photography</i>	(12)
<i>Mass Communications</i>	(11)
<i>Publicity</i>	(8)
<i>Ethics</i>	(6)

Other courses required: Public Affairs Reporting, Radio and Television News, Magazine Writing and Editing, Graphic Arts, Picture Editing and Research Methods.

Problem No. 1 of PR Agency Operation

How To Charge A Client

By FARLEY MANNING*

OF ALL AMERICAN businesses and professions the public relations agencies probably have the least standardized methods of charging for their services.

Even among the largest and oldest of the New York firms where, if any place, interchange of personnel and close contacts with each other over many years might have produced some unanimity of thinking, hardly two can be found that operate on exactly the same basis.

There can be no quarrel with either the ethics or the business practice of any of the various methods used by reputable agencies. However, they are so varied that a new agency entering the field faces grave difficulties in choosing a system.

When Roger Kafka and I opened our agency in July 1954 we discussed this aspect of management with the principals of eight of the country's leading public relations organizations and gathered information on the systems used by many more. Based on this study we set up our own method of billing. What turned out to be equally important, we set up a cost accounting system that has served us well.

For we found that there were actually two related problems. Regardless of the system we were to use for billing it became immediately obvious that there had to be an internal accounting system for analyzing costs.

Cost accounting practices have been formulated in most fields, but in public relations, perhaps because of the intangible nature of both the product and the means of production—there has been relatively little agreement on cost analysis and codification. However, there does seem to be a trend toward recognition of the elements that constitute the basic costs of handling an account. And this, in turn, is tending toward the adoption by

* Farley Manning heads his own public relations firm, Farley Manning Associates, in New York.

many agencies of billing methods which are at least comparable, though they differ widely in detail.

Among the agencies consulted we found many approaches to cost analysis being used. In most cases these plans give recognition to what are coming to be considered the four basic costs of operation.

Unfortunately, no specific terminology has been worked out as yet for these direct, basic costs, but in general, they seem to be recognized as the following:

1. External Costs—the “out-of-pocket” expenses for printing, travel, long distance phone calls, mailing house charges, entertainment, etc., which may be involved in the ordinary conduct of the account.
2. Salary Costs—the payroll for those people, usually other than the firm’s principals, whether full-time or part-time, who do the work.
3. Facilities Costs—the expenditures for rent, light, local telephone service, furniture and fixture depreciation, reception, bookkeeping, messenger service, workmen’s compensation, etc., which are necessary basic costs of operation.
4. Management Costs—time devoted to the account by principals of the firm and a share of general overhead including such costs as new business solicitation, etc.

All these costs are ordinarily present in any operation, regardless of the accounting method used. Any method of billing which is to be fair to both agency and client, will, in one way or another, be based upon them.

However, even when the same basic cost system is used, there are many considerations which lead agencies to develop widely differing systems of billing and bookkeeping.

Different Concepts

First of all is the difference in concept as to the amount of risk to be assumed by the agency. Some agency heads prefer to set a flat charge for doing a job and then work within that amount. If things go well this gives them an opportunity for substantial earnings—but by the same rule if the client is unexpectedly demanding or unforeseen difficulties arise, the agency can likewise suffer a loss. Other agency executives feel that it is better to break down the charges at least enough so that both client and agency are conscious of the actual costs of operations, thus reducing the risk of overspending.

At first glance, there appear to be almost as many types of contracts or methods of charging as there are clients. Upon closer examination, how-

ever, they boil down to four methods with minor variations. The reasons for this lack of uniformity are rooted in conditions which are generally not connected with costs or accounting methods, but are the outgrowth of agency-client relationships, initial contact conditions, and client attitudes.

The four major classifications of contract appear to be as follows:

Method 1.

For the smaller accounts, the most common form of agreement is still the flat charge contract. This has the obvious advantage of providing both parties with a known cost for budgeting purposes. But while it offers a set cost to the client it gives him no control over expenditures and is the most speculative of all contracts to the agency.

This form of agreement seems to be most popular for two very diverse types of accounts. It is the method most often used by established firms for old continuing accounts where the "load" is known or where they are largely counseling in nature. And it is the agreement most often negotiated by new, growing firms that like its speculative characteristics and the opportunity it provides for unusual efficiency to be rewarded by higher profits.

Method 2.

The first change from the flat charge method which still allows for some of its speculation while at the same time tending to limit chance for loss, is the simple split between external and internal operations. Under this system all external, or out-of-pocket, expenses are billed back to the client and internal costs are stated as a flat charge.

Since external expenses will usually follow the curve of activity to some extent at least, this method is the first step toward making the amount of time and effort conform to the advance plan and budget. Where art departments, photographic studios, and mailing departments are maintained by the agency, their services are generally billed just as they would be if the services were furnished by outside contractors. On typing and even some mimeographing, however, there is less uniformity.

Method 3.

The third general method of charging clients allows for a further breakdown of the internal charges by segregating the costs of personnel.

Under this method the greatest single opportunity for hidden loss is eliminated—for most of the executives interviewed agreed that the accounts on which they were most apt to sustain a loss were the ones where inadequate adjustments had been made for increasing salary rates and, even more

particularly, for increased activities and services. With this charge being billed directly, only the costs of facilities and supervision plus an allowance for overhead and profit to the firm, are left to be covered by a flat monthly fee.

Where the account executive is not a partner or in the top management bracket, some firms bill his salary—or that part of his time which he spends on the account—directly to the client just as they would with a writer or secretary. Others consider it a part of "supervision" and figure it in the fee.

Most of the concerns, in billing part-time services of employees to the client, made allowances to cover holidays, vacations, and sick time. A typical "per diem" charge seemed to be based on about one seventeenth of the monthly salary.

Method 4.

The fourth method is basically the same as the third except that the cost of facilities is tied to the salaries billed the client rather than being included under the fee.

In our own shop, after much consideration, we adopted this fourth plan.

We have found that our cost for rent, light, bookkeeping, office supplies, and all the general miscellaneous overhead expenses hold to a reasonably level figure month by month. And an informal check with other agencies shows that our expenses in relation to the number of people on the payroll are probably in line with those of our competitors.

So in billing our clients we actually present a three-part statement itemized to a degree consistent with the size of the account and the wishes of the individual client.

Part one lists external expenditures with all items being charged at their net cost to us without any upcharge or commission.

Part two covers the actual cost including payroll taxes and pension fund payments of personnel time spent on the account during the month plus an overhead charge (the amount depending on the class of employee) to cover the cost of facilities.

Part three is a flat monthly fee which is designed to cover the time of the account executive and other management people, share the overhead costs, and give the firm a reasonable profit.

To date Method 4 has worked well for us, but it must be remembered that we had the advantage of starting fresh with new accounts and being able to make our agreements in advance.

In talking with older agencies, we found that while most agency management apparently has a good understanding of the costs involved in doing business, many admitted that they have individual accounts on which they don't know whether they are losing money or making money. Some said that these are, in general, prestige accounts on which there has been such a long and pleasant relationship that they don't wish to disturb them. However, they acknowledged that they should know their costs whether or not they passed them on.

In nearly all cases, however, there seems to be an increased understanding of the costs involved in the operation of accounts and a tendency on the part of many to recognize these in making new contracts.

The thinking of many was summed up by the head of one agency who said: "It would help to cut out the chiselers if we all broke our statements into the various categories of cost and billed all clients uniformly. But I think it is of even greater importance for us to recognize the cost factors ourselves. I don't approve of an agency kidding the client, but an agency that kids itself is certainly looking for trouble."

Recently, the members of the Washington, D.C. chapters of the American Public Relations Association and the Public Relations Society of America—243 persons in all—were asked some questions about themselves. George Wells, then a senior student in public relations at the University of Maryland, conducted the survey.

Here is what was learned about income:

- Of those who had been in public relations work more than 15 years:
 - 54% reported annual incomes of \$15,000 or above
 - 23% reported annual incomes of between \$10,000 and \$15,000
 - 23% reported annual incomes of between \$5,000 and \$10,000
- Of those who had been in public relations work less than 15 years:
 - 19% reported annual incomes of \$15,000 and above
 - 27% reported annual incomes of between \$10,000 and \$15,000
 - 50% reported annual incomes of between \$5,000 and \$10,000
 - 4% reported annual incomes of up to \$5,000
- Of all respondents:
 - 26% reported annual incomes of \$15,000 and above
 - 29% reported annual incomes of between \$10,000 and \$15,000
 - 42% reported annual incomes of between \$5,000 and \$10,000
 - 3% reported annual incomes of less than \$5,000

An Interview with Edward L. Bernays:

What Do the Social Sciences Have to Offer Public Relations?

PRESENTED HERE is the verbatim transcript of an interview given the Editor in Mr. Bernays' office in New York on December 8, 1955. Because of space limitations some portions have been omitted.

Q—*Mr. Bernays, in many of your writings you have alluded to the social sciences as being the source of knowledge upon which future developments of the public relations field will depend. Do you think that the social sciences have already made important contributions to public relations?*

A—I think we should define the terms social sciences and public relations before we discuss the subject. Public relations, as I interpret it, is a field of activity which has to do with the interaction between an individual, a group, an idea, or other unit with the publics on which it depends. A counsel on public relations is an expert who advises on relations with these publics. He attempts to define the socially sound objectives of his client or project. He attempts to find out by research what the adjustments or maladjustments are between his client and the publics on which he depends. He advises his client, first, to modify its patterns of behavior, its attitudes, to conform to public demands, so that the client may reach the goals agreed upon. When the client's procedures have been adjusted where necessary, he then advises on how to give the public a better understanding of the client. Since we live in a competitive society, the public relations man tries to persuade these publics to accept the client's point of view or product.

Public relations covers the relations of a man, institution, idea, with its publics. Any efficient attempt to improve these relations depends on our

*Edward L. Bernays became a public relations counsel in 1919. His book, *Crystallizing Public Opinion*, written in 1923, was a pioneering work. For more than three decades Mr. Bernays has addressed himself to the problems of the growing field of public relations through numerous books, articles, and speeches—many of them concerning the social sciences. Because of this background we thought that our readers would benefit from these answers to questions which doubtless have occurred to all of us.

understanding of the behavioral sciences and applying them—sociology, social psychology, anthropology, history, etc. The social sciences are the foundation of public relations. If the behavioral sciences have made any contribution to our knowledge of behavior, it is obvious that a knowledge of them is basic to a consultant, who tries to improve the relations between an individual, group, or idea and the public.

In a recent study, Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan, on Public Relations and the Social Sciences, points out that social science knowledge is applied in adjusting the relations of supervisors to employees, to other aspects of industrial relations. Through an understanding of psychology and social psychology, it was possible to define these relationships and show how they might be improved.

To show how important social scientists are to public relations, here is an example of recognition of their importance, even though distorted. There is widespread emphasis today on so-called motivation. There is an unfounded belief in promotion and advertising fields that the answer to the secret of "motivation" will automatically solve all problems. This idea obviously ignores many other factors affecting behavior. Social pressures at any moment may change any answers that this type of incomplete research into motivation may have given us. Factors affecting individual personality may change the results of motivation research. Memory and retention values may be more important than motivation. Many other factors play a part in the cross-currents of behavior in addition to motivation. I point to this example to stress how important it is in dealing with the social sciences not to let fads, gimmicks, and distortions due to half-knowledge control us.

In public relations, too much emphasis has been placed on the concept of attitudes as a basis of action rather than on the broad concept of human behavior as a whole. The complex field of behavior takes in all aspects of behavior in life, as far as we have studied them and know them. This obviously is complicated. Many of us still take the easy road, thinking of humans as single-tracked individuals with attitudes that can be titillated to give Pavlovian responses in our directions.

Q— *Which disciplines of the social sciences do you think are most important to us in public relations?*

A— This is a tough question to answer. It's as tough as expecting a physician to give an answer to the question of whether blood chemistry, physics

of joint movements, or human physiology, are most important to him. The importance of any special social science field to the public relations practitioner of necessity depends on the specific problem. In communications, one segment of the field, we deal with a complex of areas of social sciences, from public opinion, social psychology and individual psychology, to economics.

In problems concerned with relations between supervisor and personnel, we draw on social and individual psychology, and communications plays a part too.

In a problem of business policy in relation to publics, we draw on broader fields of knowledge.

How to adjust the brewing industry to the people after Prohibition? To handle this intelligently demands a knowledge of the historical pattern of the behavior of the American people towards sumptuary law. We need to know something about the social history of our country, of community and individual behavior in different parts of the country. Cultural anthropology may be important for us, too.

In a problem of adjusting employee relationships in a community in which there are many different racial stocks of Americans, sociology and anthropology may be important disciplines to guide us in our activity.

Q—*Could you give some examples of the manner in which these various fields have contributed to public relations?*

A—It is difficult to isolate them in terms of contribution. Just as difficult as it would be for a physician who operated on your appendix to name the areas of medicine which contributed to the success of the operation. He might say, with equal truth—a study of the skin, of the blood circulatory system, of the healing qualities of time, of the relationship of the chemical action of antibiotics to possible infection.

When you deal with a problem in public relations, whether it be the problem of getting the American people better adjusted to the health-giving value of bananas, or getting the American people to accept the principle of the eight-hour day, pensions or guaranteed employment, you often deal with many separate fields of social science that impinge on the situation. If you are to advise on public relations aspects of guaranteed employment, you must understand the history of the labor movement in America and its importance to capitalism. You must understand the attitude of its great religions towards men and towards work. It may be well to know what happened in other countries as well. When you deal with politics, you impinge

on social psychology and individual psychology. You must, for instance, understand the workings of the authoritarian personality which has been clearly defined in terms of its insecurities and inferiorities. You must know something about the psychopathology of politics, and something about the mainsprings of the American tradition.

In the 20th Century, the universities in this country laid stress on studying human behavior. The trends that pervaded the late 19th Century and early 20th Century in Europe as well as in this country furthered social science study. The work of European sociologists and psychologists, and the work in this country of men at the University of Chicago, Columbia, Harvard, and others accelerated this, so that today, according to statistics, there are 30,000 men and women engaged in the study of human behavior.

It is a great shame that with all the knowledge available, there should still be the great gap between the thinkers and the doers in our country. So little of the knowledge available is applied for constructive social ends. In our early history in this country, the thinkers and doers were one and the same people. Jefferson was a thinker and a doer. So was Benjamin Franklin, and James Madison. As a result of different trends the gap between thinker and doer has widened. I think this occurred in the 1875-1900 period, when rugged individualists without much education amassed great amounts of money. To show their prowess they practiced conspicuous waste and conspicuous consumption. To justify their own power they looked down on thinkers. This attitude caused the attack on Roosevelt's "brain trust," the attack on Stevenson's "double domes" and "egg-heads," and on "long-hairs" generally. The doer who had carved out the wilderness and harnessed rapids for power had to justify his own position against the power of the brains who, after all, were useless in a society which needed woodcutters and bear-hunters.

Today, of course, we are dealing in a highly complex society in which the sciences, both physical and social, are our hope of survival and of growth as well. There is today, fortunately, a better rapprochement between the doer and the *physical* scientist; very little as yet between the doer and the *social* scientist. It is easier to get a company to hire a new physicist than it is to get it to hire a cultural anthropologist, even though the anthropologist may be more important for that company.

Q—What about some examples of ways in which you have used the social sciences to solve practical public relations problems?

A—Here are some examples:

a. Depth analysis on the use of leather soles showed that leather was associated with the status of the individual from childhood on. Childhood conditioning, it was learned, played an important part in people's attitude toward leather. This knowledge could be used in promoting leather soles.

b. When radios were first made they had little status. They were inexpensive "jalopies." And the radio stations and networks geared their programs to lower socio-economic groups. The problem of the radio manufacturer was to develop new values for radio so that radio would appeal to all America. It was found this could be done by organizing a Radio Institute of the Audible Arts, which carried on nationwide educational activities to develop public understanding and support of the radio as an important social value in our society. This in turn raised the standard of programs on the radio. Radio networks recognized they were getting to a higher socio-economic audience.

c. The American public, in keeping with American Protestant tradition, needs to rationalize its pleasures really to enjoy them. They may enjoy a fruit, but might not eat as much because they like it so much. In projecting this fruit for greater acceptance, it is important to find in it some useful values that will give the individual who enjoys it a reason additional to his enjoyment, for eating it. Many of the important fruit-growers' organizations have learned this and have applied it, as, for instance, orange growers and packers who have stressed vitamins quite properly and thus have accelerated the market.

d. A manufacturer of trains for children knows that he is advertising not only to children but also the infantilism of the fathers of children. That is why you often see a father in an advertisement of toy trains.

Q—*Do you think knowledge of the social sciences is a requisite for success in public relations?*

A—The answer is if users of public relations services were aware of the importance of these sciences, they would know that command of social sciences is requisite to success. But employers of the public relations adviser are possibly just as ignorant of the needs of the field as many practitioners are themselves.

Knowledge of the social sciences under present day conditions is not a prerequisite to success in the profession. However, when, as and if those spending the money for public relations understood the potential of

these skills, social science will be a requisite just as it is required that a physician have a medical degree from an accredited institution before he may practice his profession.

Before the Flexner Report on medical education in 1910, thousands of doctors were practicing in the United States who had received their degrees from mail order diploma mills. Success as a medical quack depended only on whether he could get away with ignorance or whether he was found out.

Q—*Are you satisfied with the present liaison between the social sciences and public relations? Have adequate provisions been made for public relations to benefit from the social sciences?*

A—My answer is "No" to the first half of the question, due to no one's fault except what the sociologists call the "cultural time lag." The social scientist is still rather remote from the field of the practice of public relations. The public relations man is even more remote from the field of the social scientist. There are social scientists who write about public relations. However, few public relations specialists have gone deeply into the social sciences or written about them.

Very few, if any, provisions have been made for public relations to benefit from the social sciences. I know of no joint committees of public relations men and social scientists that represent a liaison, although it is possible that some of the numerous public relations societies that have cropped up may have them. There are, of course, numerous ways in which a public relations practitioner can avail himself of social science information. There are learned journals in many fields, from the *Australian Journal of Applied Social Sciences* to the *Journal of Applied Anthropology*, etc. And the public relations man can join numerous learned societies such as the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues.

There are bibliographical aids and helps, such as monthly abstracts of sociology. But there are no joint committees functioning to discuss mutual problems.

Q—*How can a busy practitioner keep up-to-date on developments in the social sciences?*

A—There are three good ways I know. The first its to be a busy reader, to look through whatever may have any value in gaining new knowledge. I have no sympathy with the man who says he has no time to read. A busy man has no time to neglect reading. Reading is quicker than learning

through trial and error. In that connection, bibliographies are short cuts to reading the most needful literature.

A second way is to keep track of the field by reading popular treatments of the disciplines. There are, for instance, such books as *Outside Readings in Psychology*, and *Readings in Social Psychology*, which survey the field and help a man to explore it further if there should be occasion to do so. There are bibliographies; for instance, the Harvard University *Annotated Bibliography of Books of Psychology*. And then there are popularizations such as those of Stuart Chase. Books are basic to knowledge. If you go into any situation with only what you know from personal experience you are obviously not as well off as if you go into it with facts and points of view of specialists.

Another way, of course, is to know men in the social science field, themselves aware of the developments in the public relations field. Personal contact can keep you in touch with the field.

Q—How do you think we could make social scientists more aware of the needs of public relations?

A—Social scientists generally are already aware of public relations. They have shown that in their comment in books and pamphlets. They have brought out extensive bibliographies on public opinion and propaganda. One example, a recent issue of *Human Organization* published by the Society for Applied Anthropology, discusses the business man and the social sciences, indicates an awareness of the problem, and shows what is being done in the field.

However, that awareness by sensitive academicians has not produced action because stepping out from academic circles into practical life is not usually practicable. Some organizations have taken a first step—the Association for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, made up of social psychologists, is a relatively recent organization. The Society for Social Studies is equally new. So is the Society for Applied Anthropology. These societies try to apply their disciplines by translating them into action. But, compared to the activities of any Chamber of Commerce, these societies still have a lot of bridges to build.

What the situation demands is that more public relations men with a feeling for and understanding of social science should help bring theory and practice together. That is already being accomplished in individual cases. Obviously, one way to make social scientists more aware of the needs of public relations is not to tackle the problem in terms of the needs

of public relations, but rather in terms of how both groups can work together for the common goals of society. I think any social science organization would today welcome the cooperation of any honorable public relations man if it is understood that he is not merely self-interested in the relationship.

There are still many who deplore social science and put their emphasis on common sense, as if common sense could solve the problems of mankind. It hasn't done so since the time of the Neanderthal man. And still the common sense approach is prevalent.

Q—*Admittedly there are successful public relations practitioners today who see little benefit in the social sciences. They say we need more practical "how to do it" information rather than "theory." Would you comment?*

A—To me all such objections are poppycock. The fact that we have not as yet a cure for the common cold in no way disproves the importance of the findings of science as to the human body and germs. The fact that we have not as yet the answer to cancer control or cure is no derogation of the scientific approach to cancer control. It seems to me we must accept this basic fact, that individual behavior can be studied just as well as the behavior of things. A scientific approach is basic to any understanding of a world as complex as the one we live in. To use the findings of the social scientists is to proceed with the available knowledge in this field, comparable to what we do so effectively in the physical sciences which has not, as yet, been able to produce protoplasm. Just as Einstein found the equation that led to atomic fission, we may hope for social scientists who will develop formulae for social fusion.

There is one footnote to be made to this, however. Just as the social scientists have found that certain tribes of Indians in Central America eat certain plants without knowing why they do so, which plants later on were found to have ingredients lacking in their ordinary diet, so it is undoubtedly true that many common sense steps undoubtedly have a much more basic reason.

But certainly it is sounder to know scientifically why one is doing something than to do it by rote or by gosh, because our ancestors did it.

Q—*Here is a general question. Recently there have been a number of reports and studies attempting to describe the kind of world we shall live in in 1975. What do you think the practice of public relations will be like twenty years from now?*

A—We initiated the professional practice of public relations in 1920, which is about the same time period in point of the past as 1975 is in the future. In *Crystallizing Public Opinion* (written in 1923) we foresaw the practice of public relations as it is now being carried on. But it did not envisage the technological improvements in communications which have accelerated and speeded up these processes. It is equally difficult to encompass the technological speed-ups in transportation and communication that might transform the physical world, from jet planes to television on telephones, and to whatever may follow these processes. That must be left to the imagination of the science fiction writers.

If our society continues to function in a democratic way through change and adjustment, through accommodation of varying groups and view points of one with another, through progress at uneven rates of the constituent elements that make up society, there will be even greater necessity than there is today for a public relations practitioner. He will be helpful in evaluating the adjustments and maladjustments between the groups that make up the society, will advise his clients or employers on their attitudes and actions, will help them achieve their goals, and will interpret client or employer organization to the publics concerned.

Such a man will need training in the social sciences.

He will go through an apprenticeship or internship in some establishment before practicing.

He will be licensed by the state as to character, ability, and training. Society will hardly want to risk the dangerous tampering the effective practitioner will be in a position to do, without such licensing.

He will reap the social and monetary rewards an individual of such qualifications receives from society.

If, on the other hand, our society moves to statism of the right or the left and there is no room for the normal processes of flexibility of a democratic society, there will be no such vocation.

The future of the public relations man is linked up with the future of a free society.

* * *

The development of the publicity man is a clear sign that the facts of modern life do not spontaneously take a shape in which they can be known. They must be given a shape by somebody, and since in the daily routine reporters cannot give a shape to facts, and since there is little disinterested organization of intelligence, the need for some formulation is being met by the interested parties."

—Walter Lippmann in PUBLIC OPINION
The MacMillan Company, 1922.

FURTHER COMMENT:

Are Random Samples of Press Clippings Valid?

THE FOLLOWING COMMENT HAS BEEN RECEIVED FROM SCOTT M. CUTLIP, VISITING PROFESSOR AT CORNELL UNIVERSITY, AND REGULARLY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM:

... I would like to take exception to one point made by Co-Authors Harris and Lewis in "Some Methods of Measuring Press Attention" (PR, October, 1955). They state that the short-cut of a random sample to get an accurate view of press content as a whole is invalid.

Research conducted at the University of Wisconsin School of Journalism clearly proved to us there that it is possible to take a random sample of the nation's some 1,700 newspapers and come up with an accurate estimate of the content of the nation's daily press. This research was carried on by three regular Army officers while studying public relations at Wisconsin—Col. Wendell J. Coats, Major Steve Mulkey, and Major George Pappas. The Coats-Mulkey study was reported in PUBLIC OPINION QUARTERLY, and is available in multilithed form from the Department of Agricultural Journalism, University of Wisconsin. The Pappas refinement of the Coats-Mulkey sample is, unhappily, still locked in thesis form. . . . Why more national organizations haven't taken to this sample approach to press content is a puzzler to me. . . .

AND FROM

HUNTINGTON HARRIS AND PAUL M. LEWIS:

Professor Cutlip is perfectly correct in saying that a random sampling technique is adequate for the description of the newspaper content universe. . . . The problem is, of course, the size of the sample: in short, at what point in the application of successive sampling units does the variation approach an acceptable error?

This is a formidable problem. In the Mulkey et al. study . . . the device of stratification was employed. The sample was then split (or pre-matched) and probability theory was applied with results which indicated generally that the samples were adequate for some purposes.

The testing categories of content were, however, gross categories: Army logistics, military intelligence, fiscal policy, etc., and no attempt was made to "prove" the sample at all levels of content.

This is not to criticize the study but only to define it. If the samples had been compared by specific stories, some of which have in fact coverages of no more than 3% (see One Day in the Press by H. Harris, Public Relations Journal, July, 1954), the comparison would have been between one item in Sample A (50 papers) and two items in Sample B (50 papers)—an obvious absurdity.

It is in the nature of the commercial application of newspaper content that coverage tends to be low and that interest is almost invariably in specific stories. In practice, by the time you get a large enough sample to determine the coverage of a story, you might just as well read all the papers you can get—or a definitive group by circulation and region without sampling implications.

In sum, Professor Cutlip is thinking of the categories of newspaper content: the relative degrees of foreign news, sports, crime, etc.; we are thinking of how Company X's president made out in his speech to the Middletown Rotary. It is for this reason that national organizations "haven't taken to this sample approach to press content."

U.S. MARINES:

PR Situation

Well in Hand

By ROBERT LINDSAY*

RECENT RESEARCH REVEALS that the U. S. Marine Corps has made of public relations a way of life which few other institutions, military or otherwise, can match.

Indeed, the application of basic public relations principles over a long period of years by the Marines provides a case study from which practitioners and students alike can profit. Consider, for example, these ingredients of the Corps' public relations program:

1. Recognition of public relations as a management function.
2. Understanding the necessity for public acceptance of the Marine Corps as an institution.
3. Insistence that every member of the Corps has a public relations function.
4. Belief in performance as a requisite for successful public relations.
5. Skillful use of various media of communication.
6. An emphasis on interpreting the Marine Corps to its members, as well as to the various outside "publics."

Initially the application of public relations techniques by the Armed Forces was the result of each service's need to outbid its competitors in obtaining recruits. Since the (quite literal) drum-beating days of 1775 at a Philadelphia tavern (the Corps' first recruiting station) to today's highly-polished advertising campaigns provided by a AAAA agency, the Marine Corps has relied heavily upon "institutional advertising" to promote its recruitment effort. More significant, from the standpoint of the history of public relations, is the fact that the Corps established what probably was the first military office specifically designated as a public relations activity center: the Chicago Publicity Bureau, authorized by the Major General Commandant in 1907. This office, manned by a handful of Marine Corps

* Robert Lindsay, Lecturer in Journalism at the University of Wisconsin, has just completed a history of Marine Corps public relations to be published this year by the University of Wisconsin Press.

regulars, provided releases, pictorial material, and other publicity matter to newspapers throughout the midwest on a basis that today is commonplace.

So successful was this Chicago publicity outlet that in 1911 the same Major General Commandant, William P. Biddle, established in New York City the Marine Corps Recruiting Publicity Bureau. Later transferred to Philadelphia, this office, under various names, has ever since furnished the country's media with every conceivable kind of promotional material aimed at attracting recruits to the Corps.

Pioneering Practices

Much more significant than these historical milestones, however, are the contemporary applications these early Marine Corps public relations practitioners pioneered. For example, in 1915 the Marine Corps was saying to its publicity staff that the New York office's "fully equipped press department" had as its primary mission the making-known of the Corps "wherever newspapers are published" so that "the general public may know the 'Soldiers of the Sea' for what they really are . . ." For the daily and weekly press, trained Marine Corps writers prepared "a free news and feature service" in order that "the reading public will become as familiar with the Marine Corps as it now is with the Army and Navy . . ." These pre-World War I Marine Corps public relations men firmly grasped the now-common concept that publicity must flow from honest motivation—"while the feature stories will be 'embroidered' to win space, the 'news' will be touched up only enough to add local color and to 'put across' the point that the Marine Corps is a separate, distinct branch of the services . . ."

If you have ever wondered how the stereotype of the Marine Corps as a singularly "different" service came into being, this may well be a major part of the answer.

Why, during World War I, did the Marine Corps not have to rely upon the draft to fill its enlistment quotas? One good reason was that two Marines in the New York publicity office twice each week furnished "brief human interest stories and fresh news matters" to newspapers across the country; mailed "home-towners" on enlistees to the papers of their communities; sent a story to the Marine's home town paper whenever he won an award, stubbed his toe, or did anything meriting attention; and prepared feature articles about the Corps and its men, "generally upon request," to "recruiting stations, magazines, and newspapers, together with photographs . . ."

"Publicity Must Have An Object"

In 1920, a sergeant concerned with the Corps' public relations effort wrote: "Publicity must have an object . . . [Ours is to get] the name 'Marine Corps' before the public." This man, Percy A. Webb, was a Marine Corps public relations practitioner for some 30 years. During World War II, he observed of the Corps' public relations program that deeds, not words alone, determine an institution's public esteem:

We must not forget that it is the cumulative effect of what the Marines do in the battle zones, coupled with what is said or printed about them, radio programs, motion pictures, magazine articles, public appearances, posters, pamphlets, and every report about them, good or -bad, which help to formulate public opinion.

Elsewhere, Sergeant Webb said of his decades of toil in the Marine Corps public relations field: "I had the utmost faith in the service I was writing about, and there was no need to gild the lily. No one who writes about the Marines needs to resort to hyperbole or wilful exaggeration . . . the facts speak for themselves."

In 1924, Major General Commandant John A. Lejeune appointed Major Joseph C. Fegan officer in charge of "all publicity in connection with recruiting" at Marine Corps headquarters in Washington. Fegan saw his responsibility as "disseminating general information and matters pertaining to the Corps . . ." A year later, Lejeune broadened the scope of Fegan's duties to include publicity activities for other than the recruiting mission by designating him "Marine Corps Publicity Officer."

Once again, it is not so much the historical import of the date that matters (although it may well have been another public relations "first" for the Corps), but the grasp that the Corps' "management" had of public relations. Said General Lejeune: "We seek good publicity . . . The future success of the Marine Corps depends on two factors: First, an efficient performance of all the duties to which its officers and men may be assigned; second, promptly bringing this efficiency to the attention of the proper officials of the Government and the American people."

General Lejeune also realized, and said in a memorandum to all Marine Corps officers, (1927) that "Publicity which is manifestly for publicity itself is undesirable."

Defining Public Relations

Bearing in mind that these statements came from the Commandant of the Marine Corps, it is apparent that the men who administered the Corps were men who understood the intrinsic efficacy of what are now considered to be fundamental public relations precepts. For further example,

there was Captain Jonas H. Platt, an officer of the regular Marine Corps, who wrote in 1927:

At its worst publicity is the cunning art of putting one's best foot forward—and lying about the foot. At its best publicity is the science of so governing one's public relations that the average citizen will have no reason to think of one with anything but the deepest respect.

Why not jettison the word once and for all?

Public relations is a better term which has no evil past to live down. . . . Loyalty to high ideals, modesty, dignity—good taste—these must rule our public relations; or the term itself will mean nothing.

The Marine Corps was the first of the Armed Forces to establish public relations as a separate and distinct staff function. In 1933, Major General Commandant B. H. Fuller converted the office of Marine Corps Publicity into a "Public Relations Section" to have as its purpose the handling of "all press matters in which the Marine Corps is interested, presenting to their representatives legitimate, interesting, non-sensational news items." Nomenclature has since changed (currently it is called "Division of Information") but the staff has continued without interruption.

The Navy, on the other hand, did not have a separate Office of Public Relations until 1941. Prior to that time, back to 1922, Navy public relations had been a minor function of the Division of Naval Intelligence. Nor did the Army differentiate between public information and intelligence until 1941.

Combat Correspondent System

Mention should be made also of the Combat Correspondent system put into operation soon after Pearl Harbor by Brigadier General Robert L. Denig when he became Director of the Division of Public Relations. One aspect of this use of enlisted Marines as frontline reporters deserves to be emphasized here, however. The number of Combat Correspondents was small. Certainly there was nothing to the often-heard remark to the effect that the Marines had "one press agent per squad." Toward the end of the war, when the Corps was at about its personnel peak—475,000 men, in round figures—only 256 men and women Marines had the specialty designation "Public Relations." This gives a percentage of public relations Marines vs. combat Marines of something like .00053. Yet this handful of Combat Correspondents paid prodigious dividends: the 151 officers and men performing that duty overseas turned in—in one month in 1945—3,200 newspaper stories, in addition to nearly 4,000 negatives, and 136 radio shows.

It was during the war, in fact, that the Corps' "management" (Commandants Thomas Holcomb and Alexander A. Vandegrift) put public rela-

tions as high on the list of military accomplishments as it is ever likely to be again. For the record, here is what Headquarters, Marine Corps, had to say about public relations in 1943:

In establishing a policy for the Public Relations Division, there was no attempt to make use of high-pressure salesmanship in publicizing the Marine Corps. . . . The basic reason for public relations is to maintain and improve the reputation of the Corps.

Has all this produced any results? Has public relations paid off for the Marine Corps? At the height of World War II, one newspaper observed: "We have been criticized by friends of the other armed services for giving the Marine Corps so much publicity. The answer is —they send it to us."

PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE U. S. MARINE CORPS INFORMATIONAL SERVICES:

A Footnote

The information program in the Marine Corps is known today by the title, "Informational Services". This title is the result of reorganization, in 1953, to define more clearly areas of responsibilities assimilated by public information—namely service and technical information. The basic concept of "public information" has not changed, however.

The Informational Services Mission of the Marine Corps is to:

1. Keep the public informed:
- a. Of Marine Corps missions, organization and performance of assigned tasks.
- b. In support of personnel procurement.
2. Keep Marines informed:
- a. Of the nature of service in the Corps.
- b. Of the activities of the Corps and of the command to which attached.

Marine Corps Information is a function of command—a command responsibility. The Corps-wide structure or organization of Informational Services includes the Division of Information, at Headquarters Marine Corps, and twenty-three Information Sections in field commands which include major Fleet Marine Force units, the Department of the Pacific, and major posts and stations of the Corps. These information sections are organic to the commands, and the Information Officer is directly responsible to his commanding officer.

In addition the Marine Corps maintains a small information office in New York City and representation in the Armed Forces Information Office, Los Angeles. These offices function as adjuncts of the Division of Information. Information personnel are assigned to recruiting activities for the purpose of developing recruiting aids and publicity.

Finally, Marine Corps personnel also are assigned to the Staff of the Fleet Home Town News Center, U. S. Naval Training Center, Great Lakes, Illinois. The FHTNC processes and distributes all Marine Corps generated home town news stories—a change from the previous system whereby home town stories were distributed through Marine Corps recruiting stations.

The Director of Information, a brigadier general, is the direct representative of the Commandant of the Marine Corps in all matters of Marine Corps public information and Informational Services. As such, he represents the Commandant in matters of policy and administration of Informational Services and maintains liaison with the Chief of Information, Navy Department, and with corresponding officials in the Department of Defense and other military and civilian agencies.

Under his direction is the Division of Information, at Headquarters Marine Corps, including a deputy director, two assistant directors (one for Plans and Operations, one for Information, respectively) and seven branches. The branches include those of Press and Magazine, Radio-Television, Service and Technical Information, Special Events, Speech, Plans and Policy, and Administrative. The total complement of the Division of Information, excluding clerical personnel, is twelve officers, seven enlisted and three civilians.

A PR Program

Substitutes for Manpower and Money

By H. WALTON CLOKE*

SOMETIMES WHAT APPEARS TO BE a strictly administrative problem can be solved by public relations techniques.

In 1953 the Division of Sanitary Engineering of the U.S. Public Health Service found itself, because of a budget cut, with only six inspectors to check the sanitary conditions of the 2,200 railroad dining cars in the United States. This meant that each inspector had the responsibility for at least 366 dining cars, each car requiring the checking of 128 separate items involving both basic construction and maintenance of sanitary conditions.

It seemed that only additional funds and manpower would solve the problem and these were not forthcoming.

At this point Mel White, Information Officer of the Division, proposed a public relations approach. He reasoned that the railroads themselves were well aware of the importance of safeguarding the passenger's health. With the proper incentive and a little guidance it was thought that the railroads would be able to undertake a schedule of self-policing which would reduce the number of inspections needed.

A program was devised with the objectives of encouraging the railroads in this direction and of informing the public that the railroads and the Public Health Service were cooperating in its behalf. The first step was a Certificate of Sanitation to be awarded to any dining car which rated at least 95 points on an official inspection.

Simultaneously, the railroads were notified informally that any major road which achieved a Certificate of Sanitation for each of its dining cars would be awarded a special citation by the Surgeon General. A "major" railroad was defined as one which had at least ten dining cars in regular interstate service.

* Last year the Division of Sanitation, U.S. Public Health Service was awarded a Certificate of Achievement for this program by the American Public Relations Association. H. Walton Cloke, who presents his evaluation of the program, is Coordinator of Public Relations for the Henry J. Kaiser Companies in Washington, D. C.

It developed that the value of the award was three-fold. It was a promotion asset to the railroad; it stimulated other carriers to more vigorous surveillance of their sanitary facilities; and it let the public know where to direct complaints of insanitary conditions.

The first major carrier to qualify for the Surgeon General's special citation was the Erie Railroad Company. The carrier overhauled all its dining cars in accordance with Public Health Service recommendations and received the special citation in June, 1953.

The last of the Erie's dining cars to achieve the Certificate of Sanitation entitling the carrier to the Surgeon General's special citation was brought into Jersey City, and a luncheon was held on board at which the Erie's Vice President in Charge of Operations received the award from the Assistant Surgeon General and Chief Engineer of the Public Health Service.

Despite the fact that the story was released to the newspapers the day after the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II, it was carried at least once by every daily newspaper in New York and New Jersey and twice by many of them. The Erie Railroad also distributed the release to newspapers in towns along its right of way.

Other Railroads Participate

The results were immediate and tangible. Requests were received from a number of other railroads for information as to how they might qualify for similar citations.

For some of these railroads, compliance involved expensive and long-term construction or reconstruction of equipment. However, several of them made immediate arrangements to start and at least two of them are now within striking distance of the Surgeon General's special citation and several others are making excellent progress.

As a result of its achievement, the Erie Railroad now has on every dining car table a table-tent and on every menu a sticker announcing that it has received the Certificate of Sanitation of the Public Health Service. The certificate is good only for one year, and all carriers must meet the specifications of the Public Health Service each year to continue to merit the award.

The cost of initiating the program and carrying through on the first award to the Erie Railroad proved to be less than \$100. Besides the time of Mr. White, the only expenses were his rail fare from Washington to New York where he stayed three days, and the mimeographing and distribution of three news releases.

The moral seems to be: Where there's public relations there's a way.

BOOK REVIEWS



PERSONAL INFLUENCE: THE PART PLAYED BY PEOPLE IN THE FLOW OF MASS COMMUNICATIONS

By ELIHU KATZ AND PAUL F. LAZARSFELD

The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois. 400 pages, \$6.00

*Reviewed by Stewart Harral, Director of Public Relations Studies,
the University of Oklahoma*

Today's individual, almost helplessly enmeshed in some form of collectivism, is still a somebody. And just as important to practitioners of public relations, the individual exerts more influence than is generally supposed. In fact, his influence on others may outweigh the persuasive appeals which rush from all of the streamlined channels of communication.

For those reasons, this new book by Elihu Katz and Paul Lazarsfeld will prove of more than ordinary interest to anyone engaged in communications or human relations.

A product of Columbia University's Bureau of Applied Research, this study traces the impact of various channels of influence on a cross-sectional sample of 800 women in Decatur, Illinois.

What are some of the qualities of persons who influence others? Are "opinion leaders" likely to resemble the persons whom they influence? In what areas are women likely to influence other women? Do the more influential persons share the same rung on the socio-economic ladder as those whom they influence? These and other questions are discussed by the authors on the basis of their findings.

Of special interest are the findings which relate to the flow of influence—that is, about the ways in which advice seekers are related to their opinion leaders.

Popular imagery has equated opinion leadership with high status, assuming that the process of influence is a vertical process exclusively, moving downward from high status or high prestige levels. But that's just part of the story, the authors believe. Any image of the process of interpersonal influence must now be revised to include horizontal opinion leadership, that is, leadership which emerges on each rung of the socio-economic ladder, and through all the community.

Summing up: an illuminating commentary on one of the least known areas in communication.

SPEAK UP, MANAGEMENT!

By ROBERT NEWCOMB AND MARG SAMMONS
Funk & Wagnalls. 308 pages, \$5.00

*Reviewed by Paul N. Sutton, Public Relations Department
The Dow Chemical Company*

Titles sometimes are misleading—too often in an effort to intrigue interest in the reading of a book. **SPEAK UP, MANAGEMENT!** may suggest to some a prodding treatise on management's attitude toward labor-unions-government or some nemesis of business or industry.

Actually, the book deals with a company's communications (or lack of communications) with its employees and with the public. Written in an easy, well-examined style, it offers one more welcome addition to the growing library of material on the subject of employee-management-community relations. It should best be called a handbook on the subject, prepared obviously by a team of writers who have had a broad as well as an incisive experience with industrial relations and communication problems generally.

For the experienced communications editor whose company has been well aware of this many-sided problem, there is little new in the way of communications devices and techniques. Such subjects as the management newsletter, employee handbook, annual report, bulletin boards, plant open house, plant tours, and the use of visual aids have been thoroughly investigated by an increasing number of forward-looking companies. For this type of editor or public relations man, the book serves to confirm general ideas that he has been gathering. It can help him, however, as a stimulator of suggestions—such as, looking for new ideas for the employee publication—where he runs dry from the sameness of the usual approaches to his information-gathering-and-editing problems.

To the company embarking on its first communication program, the book should be most helpful as a guide in what may otherwise be a chartless sea. Also, for the neophyte in the field of in-plant or inter-plant communications, the many tools that are available to him may be a welcome revelation.

Probably its most valuable use in some plants will be that of getting policy-making members of management to read it and get—for the first time for many—well-rounded information on what makes up the field of company-employee communications. Another use for the book is in training courses in plants and in schools where the subject is getting increasing attention.

In the meantime, we hope that in the use of the word "communications" today, we are not building an awesome structure to accomplish the "long-neglected art of man-to-man discussion in business and industry."

FACTS TO A CANDID WORLD

By OREN STEPHENS

Stanford University Press. 164 pages, \$3.50

Reviewed by Phil Robinson, Editor, Tires Magazine

Whatever your politics or your opinions of this country's efforts in the field of international propaganda, you are likely to find this book highly informative and interesting. The author, who is with the United States Information Agency, discusses the background and the program of America's foreign propaganda activities. Mr. Stephens does not fear to point out USIA's shortcomings, nor has he failed to impress us with the job that has been done, sometimes under exceedingly trying circumstances.

ADS, WOMEN AND BOXTOPS

By DUANE JONES as told to MARK LARKIN.

Printers' Ink Books. 128 pages, \$3.00

Reviewed by Michael A. Blatz, Information Director, Texas Independent Producers & Royalty Owners Association

Mr. Larkin, friend and public relations counselor of "Boxtop King" Jones, does a creditable job in this book of merchandising his boss. As is the case with most autobiographies—and biographies, for that matter—the subject is necessarily restricted. This, unfortunately, leads to a distortion of historic perspective, making the book useless as advertising history. Written in a folksy, homespun manner that out-rivals Ben Franklin's country-boy act at the Court of Louis XVI, the real meat of the book is to be found in the preface which lists Mr. Jones' idea of the 15 primary package goods advertising techniques, and in the "Premium Capsules" on pages 75 and 94, which embellish on these 15 fundamentals.

Change of Address:

The October 1955 issue of PR carried a listing of foreign public relations associations. The address of the Dutch organization has now changed as follows:

Nederlands Genootschap voor Public Relations
van der Aastraat 60,
Den Haag, Holland



NATIONAL RECOGNITION FOR YOUR PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAMS

In 1953 an "Archives of Public Relations" was established in the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C., for the use of all public relations men and women. The collection, on the shelves of the Manuscript Division of the Library, consists of case histories selected from the entries in the annual Awards Program of the American Public Relations Association.

Currently entries are being received for the 12th Anniversary APRA Awards Competition, in which Silver Anvil Trophy Awards and Certificates of Achievement will be given in each of eighteen classifications. Many of the outstanding entries, whether or not they receive awards, will be picked for inclusion in the Library of Congress collection. Deadline for the submission of entries is February 15, 1956.

For further information about the Awards Competition or the Library of Congress collection, write to—

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